DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 460 938 SP 038 067

AUTHOR Coombs-Richardson, Rita; Rivers, Eileen S.
TITLE Collaborating for Change: Building Partnerships among Teachers.
PUB DATE 1998-00-00
NOTE 13p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (53rd, San Antonio, TX, March 21-24, 1998).
PUB TYPE Dissertations/Theses - Doctoral Dissertations (041) -- Speeches/Meeting Papers (150)
EDRS PRICE MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Collegiality; Communication Skills; Cooperation; Educational Change; Elementary Secondary Education; *Interpersonal Communication; Interpersonal Competence; Participative Decision Making; *Partnerships in Education; *Teacher Collaboration; Teachers; Teamwork
IDENTIFIERS Johari Window Model; Personality Types; *Self Awareness

ABSTRACT

Building partnerships among teachers is essential to enhance student learning. The Richardson-Rivers Collaboration Model emphasizes the importance of relationship building and describes procedures for successful classroom collaboration among teachers. The model combines theoretical constructs based on the Johari window and Jung's personality concepts to facilitate collaboration, trust, and respect and to minimize conflict and competition. It uses self-awareness and understanding of others through cognitive type theory to develop interpersonal communication skills. Specific characteristics necessary for successful collaboration include willingness to collaborate, parity, mutual goals, shared decision making, shared resources, and accountability. The development of awareness of self and others can be achieved through personality typing. The Johari window illustrates the importance of appropriate self-disclosure and categorizes degrees of self-awareness, awareness of others, and openness in communication. The Richardson-Rivers Model uses the process of self-awareness and understanding of others to develop strong interpersonal communication skills. The skills involved in sending and receiving communicative messages are critical to successful collaboration. The channels of communication for sending messages are nonverbal, verbal, and written. The channels for receiving messages are listening, observing, and reading. Team members can facilitate cooperation by becoming proficient in all of the communication systems. Collaboration growth can be achieved when team members become informed of skills needed to confront interpersonal differences and accept challenges presented by the intensity of teamwork. (Contains 16 references.) (SM)

Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made
from the original document.

ED 460 938

Collaborating for Change: Building Partnerships Among Teachers

Rita Coombs-Richardson
and
Eileen S. Rivers

Southeastern Louisiana University
Department of Special Education
University Box 879
Hammond, Louisiana 70403
Phone: (504) 549-2214
FAX: (504) 549-5030

E-Mail: rrichardson@selu.edu
erivers@selu.edu

Paper presented at the 53rd Annual Conference of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD)

SP038067

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

R. Coombs-Richardson

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☐ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

Abstract

Building partnerships among teachers is essential to enhance student learning. The Richardson-Rivers Collaboration Model highlights the importance of relationship building and describes procedures for successful classroom collaboration among teachers.. Self-awareness and understanding of others through cognitive type theory is used to develop interpersonal communication skills. The Richardson-Rivers model combines theoretical constructs based on the Johari window and Jung's personality concepts to facilitate collaboration and cooperation, and to minimize conflict and competition.

Collaborating for Change: Building Partnerships Among Teachers

Propositions such as Inclusion, Quality Schools and Cooperative Learning require collaboration between various individuals engaged in the process. Friend and Cook (1996) describe collaboration as a process that enables individuals with a common purpose to work together in a supportive, reciprocal and rewarding relationship. To effectively collaborate, individuals must develop interpersonal skills; however, self-awareness is a pre-requisite to understanding others. The Richardson-Rivers model of collaboration highlights the importance of both self-knowledge and relationship building. It proposes that members of a collaborative relationship take time to understand themselves as a foundation for understanding others. Increased awareness can facilitate changes in behavior and attitudes and open opportunities for cooperation. Individuals with diverse personality characteristics present both opportunities and challenges in a working situation. Understanding one's own uniqueness as well as others' distinctive personalities is helpful in the process of working successfully with other people (Lawrence, 1979).

This approach to collaboration focuses on interpersonal relationships and on ways to increase the trust and respect necessary to achieve common goals. The Richardson-Rivers model highlights these dynamics and describes strategies to achieve goals through a continuous process that starts with self-understanding and understanding of others. The model incorporates developing greater communication awareness as a foundation to effectively send and receive messages. Communication skills become less self-centered and more goal oriented. Flexing to others' ideas assists individuals to develop less rigid and more fluid interactions. These ideas for greater understanding and effective communication are not unique. What is unique is the combination of established ideas into a model for building collaborative relationships of trust and respect.

Characteristics for Collaboration:

Specific characteristics are necessary for understanding and implementing successful collaboration. These skills are essential for establishing trust, respect, and appreciation for one another.

Collaboration is Voluntary: Mandates can change behavior, however, the change will only be superficial when negative attitudes persist.

Collaboration Requires Parity: Parity is a situation in which each person's contribution to an interaction is equally valued and each person is bestowed equal power.

Collaboration is Based on Mutual Goals: Professionals who collaborate must share at least one goal. One that is specific and important enough to maintain their shared attention.

Collaboration Depends on Shared Responsibility for Decision Making: Responsibility for engaging and completing tasks is essential for effective collaboration. The second component of responsibility concerns equity in the decision making process. In an equitable relationship each member obtains benefits but also makes contributions.

Collaboration Requires Sharing Resources: Sharing resources is the key motivator for collaboration. Resources may include special expertise, time and availability, access to other individual and material resources.

Collaboration Requires Accountability for Outcomes: Whether the results are positive or negative all participating individuals are accountable for the outcomes. In a collaborative effort, all professionals share the need to change the program when necessary (Friend and Cook, 1996).

Developing Awareness of Self and Others: Personality Typing

Self-awareness begins by knowing oneself and learning to accommodate toothers' differences. Personality typing is one way to develop an insight into personality and to understand variances in others. Members of a team learn to appreciate differences and realize that collaboration can be achieved when each member is willing to flex their personality styles to cooperate in achieving team goals.

Various scales are available to help determine personality and temperament preferences; the Myers Briggs Type Inventory (Myers & Briggs, 1987), the Richardson Inventory of Personality Types (Richardson, 1998), and the Keirsey Temperament Sorter (Keirsey & Bates, 1984). These instruments are based on Jung's theory of psychological types and report preferences on four scales (Lawrence, 1979). The Richardson Inventory of Personality Type (RIPT) was developed to measure similar type preferences as the MBTI. This measure is based on a five point Likert scale instead of a forced choice decision (A or B) (Richardson, 1998).

Extraversion (E)_____ Introversion (I)
Sensing (S) _____ Intuition (N)
Thinking (T) _____ Feeling (F)
Judging (J) _____ Perceiving (P)

The E/I scale indicates the focus of people's attention and energy in their environment. Extraverts are energized by doing things and being with people. Introverts are more concerned with thoughts and ideas. Persons preferring Introversion generally are drawn to their own inner world of ideas and experiences; whereas, those preferring Extraversion are more attuned to the outer world of people and external events. Introverts prefer to learn through quiet reflection and are more reserved, while Extraverts learn through verbalization and interaction with others.

The S/N scale focuses on the way people perceive and assimilate information. Sensors acquire information through the five senses. They are practical, realistic, sensible, and sequential.

They concentrate on the here and now and tend to rely on facts. Individuals who prefer intuition appear to trust a "sixth sense". They are interested in "why" and "what if" type of questions, they are creative, are comfortable with theory and abstractions, and are future oriented. They prefer a global perspective, depend on their instincts or intuition and often take risks.

The T/F scale focuses on how people prefer to make decisions. Thinkers tend to decide in a rational, objective, logical, and impersonal way. The decision making of Feelers is more personalized and is based on values and relationships and the effect of their decisions on others.

The J/P scale refers to what might be called a person's lifestyle. Judgers, in general, are planned, decisive, orderly and work for closure. Perceivers are usually flexible and spontaneous. They are not oriented to time or deadlines, they like change and prefer events to be open-ended (Farris, 1990; Keirsey & Bates 1978; Myers & Briggs, 1989). Sixteen combinations of characteristics are associated with each type.

Sixteen Personality Combinations

1. INFP's may appear shy and "cool, but are caring and idealistic. They are open-minded and adaptable. They may have difficulty in expressing direct affection and tend to be patient and compliant.

2. ENFP's are optimistic, enthusiastic, and perceptive. They are open with their feelings and enjoy being and working with people. They are also impulsive, sensitive and can make serious mistakes in judgement.

3. INFJ's enjoy achieving. They tend to be reserved , but have good interpersonal skills on a one on one situation. They avoid crowds and tend to lose confidence when conditions are negative.

4. ENFJ's are tolerant and can relate to others. They are cooperative, strong leaders, and charismatic. They have difficulty saying "no" to requests and feel stressed and guilty when they can't deliver.

5. INTP's are architects of buildings and ideas. They are curious and are driven to find answers. They are impatient when others don't understand their explanation and may be viewed as arrogant.

6. ENTP's are alert and can improvise solutions. They are imaginative and open minded. They get in trouble when they don't plan ahead and depend on their resourcefulness to solve problems.

7. INTJ's are self-confident and decisive. They are not impressed with authority but will follow rules if they make sense. They can be close-minded and ignore the point of views of others.

8. ENTJ's are leaders and scholars. They love take charge and lead people to accomplish goals. They are inquisitive, efficient, and independent. They are strong willed and may not be sensitive.

9. ISFP's are artistic and express themselves through their work. They do not plan or prepare. Their kindness is unconditional. They are sometimes perceived as reserved and eccentric.

10. ESFP's are warm, smooth and charming, love company and excitement. They can be generous to a fault and because they enjoy life, they are subjected to many temptations. They can be impulsive and irresponsible.

11. ISFJ's believe that work is good. They abide by the rules and become annoyed when others violate the rules. They relate well to people who need them and are loyal and efficient. They are often overworked.

12. ESFJ's are sociable and value harmony. They are nurturing and peace keeping. They are concerned with what people think about them and can become depressed when they are not appreciated.

13. ISTP's are loyal and self-directed, and adventurous. They are often fearless and risk-taking. They love exciting work and play. They lack in communication skills and often create misunderstandings.

14. ESTP's are persons of action. They are friendly and sophisticated. They can manipulate others and can read people's motives. They are resourceful and can bring people together to negotiate. Their energies can be channeled into destructive ways and they can deceive and swindle people.

15. ISTJ's are dependable and practical minded. They are interested in details, thoroughness, and justice. They are organized and get the work done. They can be inflexible and unable to enjoy relaxing activities.

16. ESTJ's are responsible and like to see things done correctly. They are good at relating to people and organizing groups. They may not be willing to be democratic and listen to opposing ideas.

Developing Awareness of Self and Others: The Johari Window

Collaborative relationships are built on an understanding of ourselves and others. Personal skills needed to better understand others are: sensitivity, empathy, delayed gratification, flexibility, trust, and honesty, assertiveness and tact. These skills are best developed when both parties have some basic information about each other.

Self-disclosure is uncomfortable to people with an Introverted (I) personality characteristic. These individuals are sometimes referred to as "private" and rarely disclose personal information. The Johari window, a model proposed by Joseph Luft and Harrington Ingham, illustrates the importance of appropriate self-disclosure and categorizes degrees of self-awareness, awareness of others and openness in communication (Luft, 1970). The more that people self-disclose to each other, the more progress is made in their relationship and the better the quality of that relationship. Self-disclosure reciprocity refers to a match of people's degree of self-disclosure. Individuals will disclose more when the other person also volunteers information. However, a decline of disclosure occurs when the information is not reciprocated. Self-disclosure reciprocity appears to be useful in building relationships. The following illustration explains patterns of self-disclosure proposed by the Johari Window.

	Known to Self	Unknown to Self
Known to Others	I **ARENA** Open Self	II **BLIND SPOT** Blind Self
Unknown to Others	III **FACADE** Hidden Self	IV **UNKNOWN** Unknown to Self

The first quadrant, the open self, represents all the information, behaviors, attitudes, feelings, motivations and ideas that are apparent to ourselves and to others. This is where work relationships and collaboration are produced. Each person's open self will vary in size depending on the other person in the collaboration process. We are more inclined to disclose or open wide to people who also disclose and open wide to us. By becoming aware of their personality type, we can develop sensitivity and understanding in order to flex to their style. The larger the first quadrant, the better the communication and collaboration. To improve interpersonal skills we need to work hard on enlarging the open self through empathetic assertiveness and tact.

The second quadrant, the blind self, represents information about ourselves that others know but of which we are unaware. Examples include repetitive phrases we use in our conversation, such as, "you know" and "O.K." We may perceive our behavior as assertive, but others perceptions may interpret our actions as aggressive. Interpersonal relations can improve by reducing the Blind Self and willingly listen to others without getting defensive. People who cannot delay gratification have difficulty listening to others without interrupting or jumping to conclusions. However, when giving constructive feedback to reduce others' blind self, we must empathize and be tactful with our suggestions.

The third quadrant, the hidden self, contains all our personal secrets that are unknown to others. Extraverted people are more inclined to reveal their personal and working relationships. They over disclose and fail to distinguish between those who should and those who should not hear about their intimate self. Intraverted personalities tend to under disclose and keep a personal low profile. They will talk about others and events but never about themselves. In a collaborative situation these members may be viewed negatively because they may be perceived as aloof, anti-social and secretive. Self-disclosures should be selective and appropriate. They occur more in small groups than in large groups and improve communication between members. More importantly, self-disclosure is an essential condition to getting to know another individual.

The fourth quadrant, the unknown self illustrates characteristics about ourselves that are unknown to ourselves and others. These may be events and feelings that we have buried deeply in our subconscious. In collaboration efforts, members can offer assistance through open,

honest and empathetic interactions. We can learn about ourselves through self-talk and self-analysis. Remember we are all constantly changing. Inter-personal and intra-personal growth occurs through self-understanding and understanding of others.

Communication

The Richardson-Rivers Model uses the process of sel-awareness and understanding of others to develop strong interpersonal communication skills. The skills involved in sending and receiving communicative messages are critical to successful collaboration. The channels of communication for sending messages include nonverbal, verbal, written. The channels for receiving messages are listening, observing and reading.

Sending Messages	**Receiving Messages**
Nonverbal	Listening
Verbal	Observing
Written	Reading

Sending Messages:

1. Nonverbal: Spoken messages may be divided as follows: verbal components make up 8%, para-language (volume, tone, pitch, rhythm) make up 37%, and nonverbal elements (body language, facial expressions, proximity) make up 55% (DeVito, 1991). The small movements of eyes, hands, and facial muscles communicate just as do the gross movements of gesturing, sitting apart from the group, or staring out of a window. Movements of facial muscles, the degree of eye-contact, and the way we face each other gives us cues for reaching conclusions. The position of our bodies in relation to others also sends signals. This is referred to as proximity. It can be partitioned into four zone distances:

(A) the Intimate Zone, used with emotionally close relations,
(B) the Personal Zone, used with friends and in social gatherings,
(C) the Social Zone, used with people we do not know very well, such as salespersons, carpenters, receptionists, new acquaintances.
(D) Public Zone, used in addressing a large group of people.

1. Nonverbal Communication: This type of communication is a very complex process involving voice tone, facial expressions, body posture and proximity. Non-verbal messages are essential to successful collaboration, because attitudes and emotions are clearly demonstrated, and judgements are frequently reached through this medium of communication (Fast, 1970; Pease, 1987).

2. Verbal: Language reflects culture and allows communication within a society and with outsiders who have mastered our language. Our oral messages must be intelligible, accurate, clear, precise and meaningful. Every profession has its own "in-group" language which is not

easily understood by someone from the outside. In a collaborative team, it is important to use language which can be understood by all members from different professions. Power plays often occur when team members use "putdown talk" to intimidate and disempower others. "Putdown talk" consists of such behaviors as sarcasm, interruptions, sick humor, lies, double-talk, blocking feelings, blame, jumping to conclusions, distorting facts or ideas, and gossip. Communication and collaboration suffer when "putdown talk" dominates. Personal agendas and concern for getting attention replace the common goal. Sending I-messages instead of you-messages can diffuse negative communication (instead of, "You don't know what you're talking about" say " I feel frustrated because I don't understand what this is all about"). Effective verbal communication consists of: statements that are concerned with group achievement, questions that clarify, show interest, and inform, and feedback that is reinforcing and constructive (Gordon 1973; Roger, 1951,).

3. Written: Key elements of an important message are often expressed in writing. As in speaking, correctness and clarity in writing is important: analyze the topic by breaking it down into all components (ideas), set up a chain of ideas, choose the idea to be developed, arrange and announce the main idea, write down your topic sentence, connect the main idea. Repeat key words for emphasis and for clarity of relationships among sentences. Make sure to use exact words to express intentions. Incorporate technology and use computer processing programs that offer thesaurus, spell and grammar checks. Remember the four C's in writing: complete, concise, correct and clear. Memorandums should be concise, clear and to the point. They should be as sparse as possible and meaningful in content. Lengthy memos are often received with apathy and indifference. The written language should be accurate, factual, exact, and hold the attention of the reader. Simplicity is the key to writing effective memos. Use concrete, specific information and avoid vague or general phrases. Vague language can obscure the message and make it impossible to determine the exact information (DeVito, 1991). Whenever possible, direct your memos through electronic mail. People are more inclined to carefully read their E-mail than a stack of paper memos.

Receiving Messages:

1. Listening: Individuals do more listening than any other form of communication. However, the average efficiency level is less than 25%. A message passes through two or more people, it often undergoes distortion each time it is repeated. Listening helps to establish rapport, and collaboration. Listening involves interpreting what you hear, evaluating the information, and reacting on what you heard. People appreciate good listeners, and perceive them as worthy collaborators. Effective listeners listen for both content and feeling. They use both passive and active or reflective listening as determined by the situation.

Passive listening or listening without talking, is a powerful means for communicating acceptance. In passive listening, persons listening show interest in the speaker, open-mindedness and a nonjudgmental stance. They indicate involvement through nonverbal and limited verbal communication (a nod, a look of amazement, thumbs up, a frown, simple utterances such as huh, aha, oh, wow, really). When you listen passively, you allow speakers to ventilate and express thoughts, feelings or concerns. Speakers can develop their thoughts without interruptions in a

thoughts, feelings or concerns. Speakers can develop their thoughts without interruptions in a supportive and accepting climate.

In active or reflecting listening, you also consider feelings and content, but you may often interject to confirm or clarify information by paraphrasing the message. In paraphrasing, you restate in your own words what the person is saying (I hear you say that..., you must have felt... tell me more about...). In addition, you may recapitulate and summarize what has been said every five minutes during an hour's talk. This helps to clarify the message, and to respond to several points in the conversation. Your summary can assist the speaker in reaching solutions and decision making (Gordon, 1973).

2. Observing: Information received by observing interactions often differ from those sending messages. Observant may draw conclusions based on various nonverbal behaviors they can see as well as on their own on past experience, stereotypes, and cultural norms. Nonjudgmental observation requires careful examination of verbal and nonverbal communication to accurately interpret messages. In addition to looking at body language, facial expressions, proximity and congruence of speech, the observer should consider the context in which the communication is occurring. For example, if a person is frowning and shedding tears while peeling an onion, it would most likely mean that his or her behavior is caused by the fumes of the onion, and not by grief.

Other factors also affect observation interpretation. A person with a weak handshake may be labeled as having a weak character. However, a person with a hand infirmity such as arthritis, may evade a strong handshake to avoid pain. In some subcultures maintaining eye contact is considered rude and inappropriate. However, observers may misinterpret eyes evasion as lack of honesty or hypocrisy. It is important to consider a person's physical restrictions and cultural norms when interpreting observations.

3. Reading: One can become a better writer, listener and speaker by reading the correct kind of information. Using simple standard English words that are easily understood increases competent writing. Vocabulary and critical thinking can be increased by reading well written books or journals. Slow readers can increase their reading fluency from study and practice in a speed reading course.

More important than speed reading, however is knowledge in critical reading. Critical reading is developed by reading good literature such as poems, plays, novels, and articles in professional journals. Critical reading can improve the ability to be informed, objective, and discerning. Critical reading can give a sense of timing and of pace that can help improve writing skills. Technology has provided various new ways to access the written word. Books on tape, computers, television and videos are providing information that were once only available in books.

Conclusion

Collaboration is crucial for achieving common goals, maintaining positive relationships, and facilitating organizational changes. Socrates advised "Know Thyself." Knowing oneself allows us to look deep in our psyche and confront our emotions. The ability to come to terms with our feelings is essential in developing emotional maturity. Goleman (1995) refers to self-awareness as an important quality necessary for emotional intelligence. He adds that there is a logical distinction between being aware of feelings and the motivation and willingness to change them. Self-awareness is an initial step; however, we must also develop those skills necessary to be able to understand others and accept diverse personalities and opinions. It is possible to develop an emotional sophistication that allows us to set aside our biases and acquire a willingness to collaborate when we begin by honestly exploring ourselves. Understanding one's personality characteristics can be helpful in widening the Arena panel, or Open Self, of Johari's window and in establishing meaningful communication and acceptance of personality variances.

The ability to be able to reach out to others requires effective interpersonal intelligence. Gardner's (1993) definition of this type of intelligence includes a capacity to respond productively to cues from others. We become aware of contrasts in moods, temperaments, motivations, and intentions. This intelligence enables us to "read between the lines" and read the intentions and desires of others. This skill is necessary in preventing misunderstandings and empowers us to act proactively to deflect a potential crisis.

Strong interpersonal communication skills are critical in establishing effective collaboration. Members of a team can facilitate cooperation by becoming proficient in all of the communication systems. This includes written and oral languages as well as nonverbal behavior, listening, observing and paralanguage characteristics. The message conveyed by the tone and rate of our speech are as important as the words we use. We need to monitor both the messages we send and the feedback we receive (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1996). It is important to keep in mind that others' perceptions of our messages invoke certain behaviors and attitudes.

Collaboration growth can be achieved when team members are willing to become informed of skills needed to confront interpersonal differences and to accept challenges presented by the intensity of teamwork. Awareness and education are building blocks to sharing a mission and to achieving common goals.

References

DeVito, J.M. (1991). Human communication. (5th ed.). N.Y.: Harper Collins Publishers

Farris, D., (1990). Type tales. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Fast, J. (1970). Body language. N.Y. Pocket Books.

Friend, M., & Cook, L. (1996) Interactions: Collaboration Skills for School Professional. N.Y. Longman Publishers.

Gardner, H. (1993). Multiple intelligence: The theory in practice. N.Y.: Bantam Books.

Goleman, D. (1995). Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ. N.Y.: Bantam Books.

Gordon,T. (1973). Parent effectiveness training. N.Y. Peter H. Wyden , Inc. Publisher.

Hersey, P., Blanchard, K., & Johnson, D. (1996). Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing human resources. Upper Saddle River, Prentice Hall.

Keirsey, D.,& Bates, M. (1984). Please understand me. Del Mar, CA: Prometheus Nemesis Books.

Lawrence, G. (1979). People types and tiger stripes: A practical guide to learning styles. Gainesville, FL: Center for Applications of Psychological Types.

Luft, J. (1970). Group process: An introduction to group dynamics (2nd ed.). Palo Alto, CA: National Press Book.

Myers, K. & Briggs, I. (1987). The Myers-Briggs type indicator. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Myers, K. & Briggs, I. (1989). Gifts differing. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Pease, A. (1984). Signals: How to use body language for power, success, and love. N.Y. Bantam Books.

Richardson, R.C. (1997). The Richardson Inventory of Personality Type (RIPT). Unpublished manuscript.

Rogers, C.R. (1951). Client-Centered Therapy. Boston, MA: Houghton-Mifflin